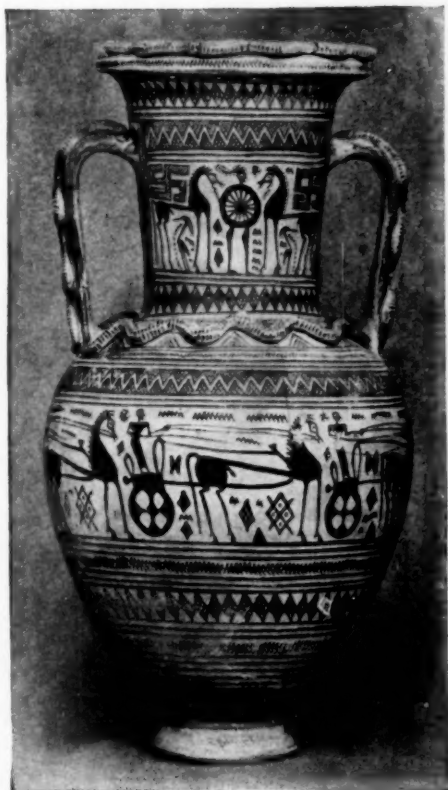


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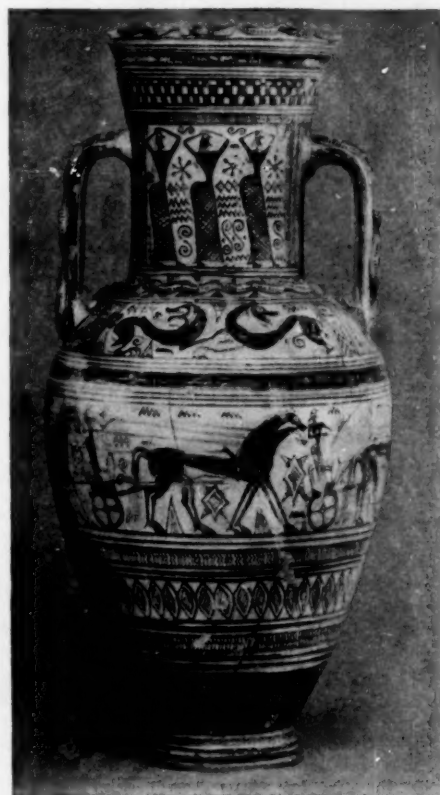
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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Doctor's Dissertation in Modern European History, PROF. C. M. ANDREWS	173
Pictures in History Classes, L. W. THOMPSON	177
Questions upon Pictures, from Flin's "Source-Book of Greek History."	179
Pictures and Maps in History Teaching, J. C. DANA	180
History in the Secondary Schools, Analysis of the Report of the Committee of Five	181
Frontispiece Described	183
Periodical Literature, PROF. H. L. CANNON	184
Reports from the Historical Field, W. H. CUSHING	184
Notes; North Central Meeting; Pacific Coast Branch; New England Association; Middle States Association.	
Aids to the Teaching of History, PROF. A. I. ANDREWS. (To be continued)	185
Bibliography of History and Civics, PROF. W. J. CHASE	189
New Books on History and Government, C. A. COULOMB	190

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The Doctor's Dissertation in Modern European History*

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES M. ANDREWS, YALE UNIVERSITY.

It is my purpose to speak briefly to-day of some of the advantages and difficulties that are bound to accompany the efforts of American students in dealing with subjects for doctoral dissertations, selected from the field of modern European history, meaning thereby the modern history of England and the European continent. It is a field that has not hitherto played a very conspicuous part in the selection of subjects for doctor's theses, and has been to a considerable degree overshadowed by medieval history and American history, two fields that have been deemed generally more important and better adapted for the purpose in hand. But, like Spanish American history, which is looming up as a phase of history likely to attract an increasing number of students in the future, modern European history is certain to take its place among the leading fields of research as deserving greater recognition than it has hitherto received.

To the student living and working in America there are manifest advantages in the selection of a subject that relates to the history of another country than his own. It has been evident for some years that students trained in American graduate schools were in danger of confining their attention too exclusively to American history. In so doing they fail to round out their own mental development in four respects:

1. They miss the educational broadening which comes from handling a subject that lies outside the country where they live, and of whose life they are a part; and they cannot obtain this enlargement of their historical point of view by the ordinary process of studying European history.

2. They miss the mental and professional discipline which comes from handling a subject in another language than their own, and by just so much they bring upon all Americans the charge of being, as they undoubtedly are, an underlanguages people.

3. They miss the training of their imaginative faculties—among the most important of all our faculties for the writing of history—in that they are not called upon often enough to interpret the ideas and traditions, the spirit and the purpose, of another people whose history is different from their own, and whose aims and methods cannot be understood by experience gained in a democratic world like ours.

4. Lastly, the student who works only in American history misses the beneficial influence, not only of travel and experience abroad, but, even more, of contact with historical scholars and historical methods of other countries, a useful asset to those who desire to further the cause of historical writing and teaching at home. A student who has lived and labored in England, France or Germany, not

as a tourist, but as a worker, is bound to gain new ideas regarding history as a whole.

These advantages accrue to the student of medieval history as well as to the student of modern history, but, as between the two subjects, modern history shows some points of superiority over medieval history. As a rule, work in the history of the last three centuries demands greater comprehensiveness of treatment as compared with work in the history of the Middle Ages. Medieval history seems to call for intensive rather than extensive treatment, a regard for minuteness of detail and the settlement of essentially small particulars. An excess of such method of study, unless counterbalanced in other ways, is not beneficial. It takes a strong scholar to rise above the narrowing influence of excessive devotion to small points of criticism, to the interpretation of obscure texts, and to the piecing together of many particulars. The spirit of the Middle Ages was not conducive to the development of large ideas and general views, and the student of the Middle Ages, particularly the beginner, is apt to lose himself in the wilderness of manifold variety of customs and habits and to miss that more liberal training which the wider range of modern times gives to him. The study of modern history seems to offer a better opportunity to develop that power—so essential to anyone ambitious to become an influential teacher and writer—of combining the particular with the general and of drawing large conclusions from masses of data obtained by extensive and scholarly research. It seems to call into being, better than does medieval history, the ability to select, combine and construct, and so to reach conclusions of value to the world at large. I believe that it is more difficult for the student of the Middle Ages to escape from the narrowing influence of his subject than it is for the student of modern times.

These are some of the advantages which are sure to accompany the work of prospective doctors of philosophy in the field of modern European history. What now are the disadvantages?

1. There are, first of all, certain personal considerations that have to be taken into account whenever one is tempted to encourage a student to work in a foreign field. There is the question of expense, often complicated by inconveniences, associated with family, professional and personal obligations. These difficulties cannot be met lightly, for they often compel a student to take as a subject something not only American, but even local in character. In this case the historical instructor is obliged to submit to what seems an inevitable circumstance, hedging in and controlling what might otherwise be a wise historical ambition. In some quarters this difficulty is met by financial aid in the way of scholarships and fellowships or by grants in aid, and these, when wisely dispensed, have great practical

*A paper read before the American Historical Association at Indianapolis, 1910.

value; but at best they are only occasional and, in some instances, have been manifestly harmful because of misuse. In the same category of difficulties comes the expense of having transcripts made or researches conducted, almost inevitable accompaniments of work abroad. Here again small amounts of money can be used most effectively by the departments under whose direction the student is working, and such appropriations have been made in some of our American universities.

2. A second personal difficulty is that of language. Students planning to work in English archives are not confronted with this obstacle; but those who deal with French, German, Italian or Spanish materials must have a sufficient knowledge of their language before attempting the work before them. Manifestly some are in no condition to undertake the task. To write a thesis on any phase of continental history demands something more than a reading knowledge of the printed language. It may demand familiarity with its written form, not only of the present day, but of by-gone days also, and the written form of a language of four centuries ago is a paleographical matter. There are cases where it would be manifestly unwise to urge a student to undertake a thesis that would involve him in time and effort in excess of what should be reasonably required of a candidate for the doctorate in philosophy.

3. A third difficulty is as follows: many students are temperamentally unfitted to cope with a foreign subject. They may be incompetent to interpret the point of view of another country, to sympathize with the spirit of its institutions and its people, and to read aright the evidence which its documents furnish. There are such students, and it is a question, not only whether they should be encouraged to work outside the history of their own country, but even whether they should be encouraged to work in history at all.

Granting that these more or less personal difficulties are fully met, what is the situation which the student of modern European history is called upon to face?

1. In the first place there are hardly any guides to the methods and materials for modern history. The works of Lorenz, Bresslau, Dahlmann-Waitz are of value chiefly to the student of medieval history. Gross's bibliography stops with 1485, and its continuation has not yet been undertaken. Bernheim's *Lehrbuch der Historischen Methode* scarcely deals with the problems of the modern field, while the recent work of Wolf, *Einführung in das Studium der neueren Geschichte*, very helpful though it is, and standing alone in its class, is almost exclusively designed for students of German history, and is of but slight importance for workers in other fields. Furthermore, its scope is largely political and legal.

2. In the second place, seminary training in the handling of materials for modern history is yet in its infancy. In Germany Droysen was the first to found a seminar for the study of the history of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Schmoller, in Berlin, and Knapp, in Strassburg, have stimulated work on modern subjects, particularly of an economic character. Firth, at Oxford, conducts a seminary in the history of England in the seventeenth century, and there are here and there in this country seminaries that are devoted to some phases of the history of recent times. But the opportunities are not yet adequate to meet the growing demand. Modern interests are placing modern history more and more in the foreground, and are widening the area of proper scientific treatment. That special oppor-

tunities for training will be provided eventually cannot be doubted, and the more persistent the demand, the more certainly and speedily will the need be supplied.

But there are definite difficulties in the way of seminar courses in modern history. For medieval history the sources of information are better known, and to a very considerable degree are in print, though, for certain periods and certain subjects, even the sources for medieval history are not readily available. For the modern period certainly seventy-five per cent. of the material is in manuscript or in such form as to render it unavailable for seminary purposes. Nevertheless, this objection is not insuperable. Methods can be taught, illustrative material can be found, and the student can be made familiar with the character of the subjects, the nature of the evidence, and the peculiarities of the method involved in its treatment.

3. In the third place the subjects that present themselves for investigation in modern history are, as a rule, more complex than are those found in medieval history, and demand, very often, greater maturity of mind than is usually possessed by graduate students, and greater experience than such students have been able to acquire. A subject in modern history is apt to require more time in research than is deemed desirable in our graduate departments, and, if undertaken, is in danger of resulting either in a superficial piece of work, which is unworthy of acceptance, particularly if it is to be printed, or in a prolongation of the time spent beyond what most students are able to give to the period of study. With modern times we reach an era when there is greater interworking of forces, greater dovetailing of interests, greater dependence of class upon class and section upon section, such as is not known in medieval times. Subjects tend to become more largely political than is the case with the earlier period, when political interests play a much less significant part. As we advance toward the modern era, complicated national and international relations appear, and interests that are governmental and constitutional tend to dominate the scene.

4. In the last place, the method that must be employed in dealing with modern history undergoes a very considerable change, a change that is not in the direction of simplicity, but of complexity. Though training in matters of accuracy, impartiality, good judgment and interpretation generally is equally important whether obtained in the medieval or the modern field, training in textual criticism is of but relatively little value for the student of modern times. There are fewer ancillary sciences needed. The student will make less use of paleography, diplomatics, sphragistic, and the like. He will find certain classes of materials almost entirely wanting—monuments, coins, sagas, anecdotes, table talk—but he will find substituted for these other materials no less difficult to handle, and other ancillary sciences no less difficult to comprehend than are those that confront the medieval specialist.

For good historical results the writer needs two kinds of qualifications. He must himself possess the necessary scientific fitness which is presupposed of all successful historians, and he must have acquired through observation and research the necessary mastery of his material. The more the combination of these two acquirements is made perfect, the more lasting and durable will be the result. But the richer the material the more difficult will be the problem of mastery, so that for the student of modern history the matter of research is probably the more serious of the two prob-

lems. There is probably less need of a training in mental longitude, though the very fact that this need seems less pressing constitutes in itself a danger that must be guarded against. There is a very appreciable difference between the atmosphere of to-day and that of a century ago, or even of half a century ago. There is certainly less need of what is known as *Quellenkritik*, the criticism of sources. In medieval history the criticism is intensive and incisive; in modern history it is extensive and constructive. In medieval history the personal element is relatively unimportant, so far as the authorship of chronicles, annals and hagiographies is concerned; in modern history it often becomes of great significance. The test applied to a medieval text concerns the author less than it does the items of time, place, handwriting, use of words, forgery, interpolations, deliberate falsification, and the like. To the student of modern history many of these questions are less likely to be present. The documents themselves present few internal difficulties; time, place and author are generally known, there is always a large body of contemporary material from which to obtain knowledge of the writer and the circumstances under which he wrote, and his career can generally be followed and his relation to the document understood. Questions of bias and influence and like subjective motives demand imperative answers, but the internal criticism of the document itself is less often a factor to be considered. Subjects in modern history demand less the critical than the constructive faculty.

The causes which have produced this greater complexity of material for modern history can easily be determined. They are, in the main, two: first, the activities of the printing press, the publishing house, and the postal service; and secondly, the vast increase in the departments of government and the accumulation of records consequent upon that increase.

The first cause has given rise to an enormous body of pamphlets, newspapers and printed books. Since 1600 the number of pamphlets and ephemeral publications has increased to such an extent that it becomes a serious problem to the student to deal with them adequately. Most of them are out of print, some exist in but few copies, others are scarcely to be found at all. With newspapers the problem is no less serious, and earlier numbers, like many of the pamphlets, have almost the rarity of original documents. The publications of learned societies and the series of reviews, monthlies, quarterlies and yearlies have all to be considered, and such annuals as the *Annual Register*, the *Annuaire Historique Universel*, not to mention modern year books like Schulthess's *Geschichtskalender*, are all of value to the historian.

Memoirs play a large part among the sources for modern history, in conjunction with autobiographies, accounts of travels and other experiences. The memoir is different from the old chronicle and must be treated in a different way. The subjective element is prominent, and the exposition must be rather psychological than critical. The critic must have a wide knowledge of the period with which he deals, if he is to use memoirs safely. He must understand the writer, must study his motives, must determine how far a memoir is an apology, a defence, a glossing over of faults, a brief for a party or a policy. The critic must have a more or less deep appreciation of human nature and human weakness, and that too in the light of the social, political and moral sentiments of the day. He must de-

termine the circumstances under which the memoir was written, whether in time of great stress, of strong political or religious conflict, or of party rivalry. Repeated analyses of memoirs soon place them in their proper historical niches as reliable or unreliable sources of information. In the same class come diaries, journals, descriptions, and recollections, and, not infrequently, the amount of careful and minute criticism required is considerable. Often only a portion of a work is to be depended on, or is important because it refers to letters or papers that no longer exist, and such portion can be determined only after extensive comparative and critical analysis.

In somewhat the same class come the collections of contemporary correspondence, valuable as showing contemporary points of view, and as giving information, but equally uncertain until critically tested. In French history the memoir plays a particularly conspicuous part, but in England self-revelation was not the fashion in the eighteenth century. Contemporary correspondence is apt to bulk large among the English literary sources of information, for the English men of prominence were voluminous letter writers, and, as a rule, have contributed more to this class of material than have continental public men. Such correspondence is generally frankly partisan, showing narrow vision and limited knowledge and perspective.

The second cause of the complexity of material is the increase in official organization and activity that takes place among modern governments, giving rise to a huge body of material classed under the head of public records.

In the modern period the governmental system has become far more highly differentiated than in the medieval period, the administrative system has become more elaborate, the number of offices and officials much greater. Legislative bodies have poured out long and often involved statutes, and congresses and conventions have drawn up voluminous protocols and treaties. The variety of documents is greater to-day than ever before; ordinances, orders, opinions, resolutions, commissions, instructions, letters-patent, warrants, deeds, quit-claims, leases, wills—all hold important places, while a great number of preliminary documents, such as drafts, protocols, bills, amendments, temporary resolutions, and the like, are recognized as absolutely essential to any comprehension of the history of the formal document. In some respects we stand in greater need of an *Urkundenlehre* for modern times than we do for the Middle Ages, because not only does the official record material of the last four centuries differ from that of the Middle Ages in many fundamental particulars, but it differs within itself according to the country where it is employed. The student working in Spain must learn over again the lesson learned in Germany, while between England and the Continental States there is little likeness in the character of the public records and record repositories. As between the Middle Ages and modern times the differences are often so marked that training in diplomatics and paleography as customarily given is of no real value to the student of modern official records, except as a mental discipline. Probably such student would have more use for a knowledge of the history of stenography than for paleography, and certainly there are many instances where a familiarity with cryptography or cipher writing is of greater practical importance than is a knowledge of the science of charters. Stenography was in frequent use after the sixteenth century for private and literary purposes, and we have some

striking illustrations of the fact in colonial times in America, where sermons were not infrequently taken down and diaries written in shorthand. It soon came to be employed in court, and after the freeing of the press from censorship was used in reporting debates and speeches. Cipher was in use in the reign of Elizabeth, and becomes very general in diplomatic and secret correspondence. The student is not very likely to need a knowledge either of shorthand or of cipher, yet it is far from unlikely in dealing with confidential secretarial despatches in time of war that he will come face to face with an undeciphered despatch. I myself am even now confronted with a volume of letters in shorthand that I cannot read and that have not been anywhere extended into longhand.

In close connection with the formal journal, minutes or reports is the vast mass of related documents, consisting of the official or departmental correspondence and kindred papers. Such material consists of letters, despatches and reports of boards and committees, ambassadors and consuls, special envoys and diplomatic agents; and to handle such material requires familiarity with diplomatic and departmental routine, with the history of diplomacy and of diplomatic intercourse, and with the origin and rise of governmental bodies. Material of this kind underlies the formal document and often furnishes the key to the meaning of imperial and royal decrees, acts of parliament, orders in council, and other finished expressions of the executive and legislative will. Perhaps one of the most important lessons for the student of modern history to learn is that too much history in the past has been based upon formal documents, and too little effort has been made to search out the activities of those who were really responsible for the formal measure. How many attempts have been made to trace the history that lies behind the acts of parliament or orders in council relating to our colonial period? In scarcely any instances can the real responsibility be placed upon either parliament or the privy council. It is not enough that the student know the finished document; it is not enough that he know the perfected record and how to handle it; he must know the history of the offices and departments from which such records emanate and within which they group themselves. He must study such records in the light of the official usages and circumstances which produced them, and must determine how far such records represent the policy of a party, a class, a set of interested individuals or a single individual, or an official board or department. As we pass on from an earlier period to a later, the significant documents undergo a change; some of the older types dwindle in importance, and newer types take their place. A papal rescript, an imperial decree, a royal sign manual, or an order in council mean much more in the fifteenth century than they do in the nineteenth. Prerogative plays an increasingly smaller part, the documents expressive of the executive will, though varying very much in the different countries, become less personal and more departmental in character, and offer less opportunity for criticism than do documents of the earlier period. The majority of such documents are official records which are to be accepted at their face value. An act, a proclamation, a treaty, a set of minutes, an official despatch must be studied less internally than in its relations to the past and the future. Any study of motives and influences requires wide knowledge. It is the want of such knowledge that has often made the theses of students writing in modern his-

tory wooden and juiceless, filled with excessive quotations and undigested extracts, and with comments that are often pathetically inadequate. One of the chief dangers that has to be guarded against in connection with thesis work in modern history is the assignment of subjects that are too large for the candidate, that require too much knowledge, too extensive research, or a maturity of mind that the student does not possess. It is rare that a candidate for the doctor's degree can add much to our knowledge of the more difficult political and diplomatic situations of modern times.

The search for official records will carry the student beyond the public repositories of a country in two directions.

In the first instance, to the archives of other countries, in nearly every one of which will be found some documents directly or indirectly of value for the history of the country of his choice. There are few political or diplomatic questions that can be met by reference to the collections in one country only, and since the day when it was discovered that Venetian and Spanish ambassadors were sending back accounts of the affairs of the country to which they were accredited, the archives of foreign states have been gradually recognized as furnishing materials essential to the history of other countries than their own. It is, of course, true that in the correspondence of many a secretary of state and of many an official ambassador copies of the letters written were kept in the office whence they emanated, but that practice touches only a part of the papers to be found in the archives of other countries and is not in all cases to be deemed a sufficient substitute for the original text.

In the second instance, he will go to the collections of private individuals and of private or public libraries and museums, particularly in England, where the habit of retaining in one's own possession the official records of one's office was not overcome till well on in the nineteenth century. Students of continental sources may assume with considerable certainty that official documents are preserved in official archives, but in England that is far from being the case. While many enlightened private owners are generous in their recognition of the rights of scholars, there are others, and some very recent, whose want of generosity has become conspicuous. It is intolerable that such official documents as the Blathwayt papers should be at the mercy of a private individual, and that the rights of the historian should be ignored because of the financial needs of the possessor and the speculative schemes of a Bond street bookseller.

As a rule the student of modern history needs to be more familiar than does the student of medieval history with the organization and system of archives. This is due in large part to the fact that the bulk of the material for modern history is unprinted and is therefore accessible only in archives. A very good thesis in medieval history could be written entirely from printed matter; I doubt if a thesis equally contributory to our knowledge could be so written for the modern period. Therefore, the student of modern history must know the archives and how to use them. Such knowledge can be gained from manuals and handbooks, such as Bär's *Leitfaden für Archivbenutzer*, Langlois and Stein's *Manuel de bibliographie historique*, Mazzatinti and Azzi's *Gli Archivi della Storia d'Italia*, and Hall's *Studies in English Official Historical Documents*. Supplemental to these more general treatises are the guides, lists, inventories, indexes and similar publications which the governments in nearly every country are putting forth. There

are further the histories of chanceries, departments and repositories, such as Haskins' *Vatican Archives*, the various publications of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, Koser's supplements to Sybel's *Publikationen aus den preussischen Staatsarchiven*, the well-known *Mitteilungen*, begun in 1900, and articles such as are to be found in the *Bibliothèque de l'Ecole des Chartes*. The problem of the archive is not an easy one, either to the official or to the searcher. No two archival systems in European countries agree either in theory or practice, and the student has sometimes to blunder along as best he may without a clear sense of direction. In England there is but one great repository, with others of lesser note; in Prussia alone there are twenty state archives, not to mention municipal and family archives, and only since Koser's advent in 1896 have the Prussian archives been put on a systematic basis. In other German states the proportion is somewhat less. In Austria, at the Vatican, in Italian municipalities, in France, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, Spain, Scandinavia and Russia archive centers exist, organized each in its own way, with varying rules and regulations, and with varying degrees of liberality in regard to freedom of inspection. Archive management is a relatively recent matter, and is even now in a stage of great uncertainty and indefiniteness. When the student has discovered where particularly he needs to work, he must

fortify himself with as much preliminary information as possible. He ought to know something of the modes of access, days and hours of work, what documents can be freely inspected, what can be seen only by permission, and what are closed to him entirely. He generally learns much of all this by sad experience on the spot, with its accompanying loss of time, but he can prepare himself somewhat beforehand if he will, and so save himself from delays and possible disappointments.

A doctor's dissertation in modern European history is practically impossible to the student who must confine his activities to this side of the water. There may be exceptional cases where printed material exists adequate for the purpose, but the official publications of modern governments, reports of parliamentary proceedings and newspapers and pamphlets generally form an insufficient foundation on which to rear an adequate and well-proportioned doctoral structure. But to the student able and equipped to invade the archives of another country than his own, the advantages to himself and to his profession are so marked and the results likely to be so fruitful that it is eminently desirable for the graduate departments of our American universities to encourage such invasion whenever and wherever it is possible to do so.

Pictures in History Classes

BY LILLIAN W. THOMPSON, ENGLEWOOD HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO.

The best justification for the use of illustrative material in history classes is, perhaps, the pleasure it gives; and yet anyone who is spending a good deal of time and attention on pictures likes to stop now and then and take a look at some of the more serious and scholarly reasons for teaching history in this way. Even a brief survey of one's experience brings out a number of pleasing results; interest is not only aroused but kept up; the study of geography is made easier and more profitable; long vanished peoples take on their proper aspects, and become acquaintances, instead of words or shadows; the text-book is far easier to read.

It is exceedingly difficult for a teacher to realize how astonishingly virgin is the soil which the minds of most of her scholars present to her, so far as history other than United States history is concerned. Of course there are in every class some few bright people who can present at short notice the most amazing bits of information on almost any subject. But this must not blind us to the fact that most pupils have either no conception at all, or merely the vaguest idea of many of the things we must deal with in history. One is not surprised to find that the average second year high school scholar knows nothing of triremes, temples, altars, fortifications, spears, shields or chitons. But such words as harbor, mountain pass, isthmus, strait, valley ought to convey to him a clear concept. Yet most pupils have not what I should call a working idea of even these things; they do not see what uses man can make of these provisions of nature, nor how he may be saved or destroyed by them. Then take such common words as house, theatre, city, funeral, soldier; if these words are presented to the ordinary pupil by his text-book, without pictures or explanations, his mental image is, of course, of a modern house, or theatre, or burial, such as he sees around him. This fact often leads us to the most amus-

ing misconceptions. It used to be no uncommon thing in my classes for Greek armies to rush at each other with a rattle of musketry, clad, no doubt, in neat uniforms of the period of our Civil War. Even when classic armor and weapons have been shown to the class, Greek soldiers are so unsportsmanlike as to hurl their swords, and finally their shields at each other! After my experiences I should not be at all surprised to discover Pericles addressing the Athenian Assembly dressed in a well-fitting business suit, with a derby hat lying somewhere near.

Pictures easily prevent such misconceptions by presenting at once the place or object as it was at the time under discussion. The periods of history, therefore, that most need illustrative treatment, because they differ in so many external ways from our modern times, are Ancient and Medieval history. Both these courses deal with many subjects which really need to be illustrated. In Medieval history I have found it necessary to show pictures of the following: The ancient Germans, monasteries and monks, castles and the times of chivalry, walled towers and the life of the tradesmen and artisans, Gothic cathedrals, the architecture of Florence, Venice and Rome, the paintings and statues of some of the great Renaissance masters, French chateaux and palaces, and court life before the French Revolution. When we reach this last period, though pictures are still valuable, we are near enough to our own times to run little risk of serious misconception. In ancient history Rome needs less illustrative work than Greece. One reason for this is that many of the ideas the pupils gain from pictures used in Greek history are just as useful in Roman history; costumes, weapons, modes of fighting, ships, and even to a certain extent buildings were near enough alike in Greece and Italy to enable the pupil to form his images properly in Roman

history without any elaborate use of pictures. Of course one likes to show views of the wonderful engineering works of the Romans, of buildings peculiar to them, such as the Colosseum or Circus Maximus, and of the scenes which took place at the games and races. But beyond these things there is little that really needs illustration for a high school class, for so many subjects of great interest in Roman history, such as the development of government, or the acquisition of territory, do not admit of illustrative treatment.

It is when we turn to Greece that the most fascinating chances for the use of pictures present themselves; this is due partly to the fact that the pupils are beginners and need the work so much, and partly to the charm of the material itself. Our work in Greek history begins with the Greek myths and Homer; these stories, and the pictures illustrating them give the new pupil a surprising stock of ideas about ancient dress in peace and war, ancient occupations, tools, houses, ships and arts. The pictures on the Mycenaean age give a chance to show the work of some of the early skilled artisans and to develop the idea of the city-state from the sites of 'Tyrins, Mycene, or Athens.' Delphi furnishes a study of an old religious center; Olympia, a view of Greek athletics; Athens, fine studies in architecture and sculpture. But perhaps the most suggestive pictures are the views of Greek scenery. The Greeks were so essentially an out-door people. Not only did they spend most of the day in the open air, but they were always marching off on some expedition, to meet the Persians, to help Sparta, to attack Boeotia. Or they took ship for Coreyra, Ionia, or the Hellespont. Nature seemed in close sympathy with them. So many crises in Greek history were decided by some natural feature; at Thermopylae the mountains crowded down to the sea to help Leonidas; at Salamis, the island crushed the Persian ships against the shores of Attica; even the weather took a hand at Mt. Athos or Mt. Pelion. Therefore, pictures of places help us to understand many of the most important events in Greek history. In this respect there is a great contrast between the kinds of pictures used in Medieval history and in Ancient history. In Medieval times men protected themselves by the walls and towers which they had made; we read constantly of blockades, sieges, and sallies; but it is rare indeed that mountain, valley or river was a determining factor. In Greek history, and frequently in Roman, almost any event of importance can be better understood by visiting the place where it occurred.

In preparing illustrative material for a lesson there are two things to be attended to; first the selection and study of the pictures to be used, and second the arrangement of them for class study and recitation. The pictures chosen should make clearer some point in lesson,—should have indeed the most intimate connection with it, and time enough should be devoted to them to bring out their salient points, and to impress them vividly on the class. Any attempt to hurry destroys interest. Then the teacher must study each picture, first to find out all there is in it, and second to plan some way to present it to the class so they can study it to the best advantage.

The most valuable method I have found is to prepare simple, informal questions which the pupils can answer by careful observation of the scene or object before them. Though it is sometimes necessary for the teacher to talk about the picture, this talk should be interspersed with questions, for high-school students will get more from illustrative work, by looking for the answers to your questions,

than by listening to any extended lecture. Displaying the pictures is simple enough. Some wall space not used for other things should have wires stretched across it, and here the pictures should be arranged in the order in which they will be discussed in the lesson; if one is fortunate enough to have a lantern and electric lights in the room, the lantern pictures can easily be used with photographs in the proper places. Any lesson on actual places or buildings should begin with a map or plan. Sometimes the wall map is enough, but frequently enlarged maps of some special district, such as Marathon, the Hellespont, Athens or Delphi are necessary. Every picture should be carefully located on these maps; in this way a clear idea of the district under discussion is gained.

Perhaps the pictures used in a lesson on Marathon will make clearer the points just suggested. The first thing on the board is a large map of the plain of Marathon, showing the bay and the encircling mountains in detail. The first picture is a view of the mountain road by which the Athenians reached Marathon; the next shows the first view they had of the plain and bay, where the Persians were encamped. Then comes a picture taken from the site of the Persian camp, showing the battlefield, and beyond that the hills from which the Athenians made their attack. The next picture is a view of the mound raised over the heroes who died in the battle. The last two pictures show two bits of the coast of Attica, which the Persians must have passed as they hurried around in their ships to surprise Athens. I often read Herodotus' account of the battle while we are studying the scene.

The class as well as the teacher must make some preparation for the pictures. Often a study of the lesson assigned in the text-book is sufficient; but sometimes special map work must be done, so that the places shown may be readily located and understood. This is particularly true if you are studying the buildings of Athens or Rome, or following some expedition on its march. Sometimes the class must look up the terms, more or less technical, which will be needed in discussing a temple, or castle, or cathedral. Names, as psychologists have so often told us, make excellent apperceptive centers. If your pupils come to a lesson on Athens, knowing the names of the chief buildings they are to see, and of the prominent parts of those buildings, they will get far more out of the pictures and remember far better what you tell them than they can if you give the names as you show the pictures and depend on their taking notes.

The actual presentation of your carefully planned picture work to a class produces most amusing, and often somewhat disconcerting, results. In the first place, beware the "human interest." If there is a person of any size and prominence in the picture, he is at once the center of interest; the whole picture is evidently but a convenient background for him, and he must be properly disposed of before the class is ready to turn its attention to the inanimate objects around him. You'd better account for him at once, for you cannot escape an explanation in the end, do what you will. Another opponent you are sure to meet is "the irrelevant." The whole picture is, of course, new to the pupils. They scan each inch of it with eager interest, for how do they know what will turn out to be (in your eyes) of supreme importance, and what of little moment? They have had considerable experience of your vagaries in pouncing on the most modest and innocent detail, and dragging it forth for lengthy com-

ment. So some ugly modern shed used by excavators receives the same careful scrutiny as the great theater, or the uncovered foundations of Zeus' temple; it is your task to center interest on the really valuable parts of the picture without quenching the youngsters' ardor for exploration by slighting their discoveries. A third difficulty you will meet is due to the fact that many members of your class cannot readily interpret pictures—especially lantern pictures. "Are those mountains or clouds?" "Where is the river?" "What is that white streak over there?" "Is that land or water?" Questions such as these continually surprise you until, at last, you grow wary and begin to ask them yourself, instead of taking it for granted that the picture is understood. I wonder whether this failure to interpret is due to the fact that the young people have seen so little of nature, or to the lack of color in the pictures?

In order to get the best results from your picture work, some slight use should be made of it afterward. This may be done by an informal review, a simple written test or a paper. It should be understood at the outset of the lesson that some returns will be required; this really adds zest to the lesson, for pupils, like teachers, study more eagerly if they see some immediate use they can make of their knowledge. And the ultimate result? This is hard to measure, for picture work, like most of our teaching, is more or less a casting of our bread upon the waters; but curiously enough, even the leanest and most unpromising fish in the class, whom you could hardly catch nibbling, will often return to you after many days, perhaps from a trip to Europe, or from a university course, confessing that he got his first taste for bread and his first turn toward historical corpulency from the illustrative material used in your class.

Questions upon Pictures

The following illustrations and quotations from Professor F. M. Fling's "Source Book of Greek History," (D. C. Heath & Company, \$1.00), will show how much can be gained from the most simple illustrations in the text-book, if the picture is correctly estimated by the teacher.

Fig. 1. "Women at the Fountain." British Museum. (From a photograph.) Black-figured Volcantine hydria (water-jar) from Athens. Sixth century B.C. (Source Book, p. 173, 357.)

Questions: 1. What can you learn about Greek life from the group on this vase? 2. Compare the dresses of the women in this vase with the dress of the women in Figure 1. 3. Why do they differ? 4. Describe the grouping of the figures. 5. Why does the subject lend itself naturally to vase decoration? 6. Where have you seen a design with a figure similar to that in the lower border?

Fig. 2. "Games." Facing page 212. (From photo-

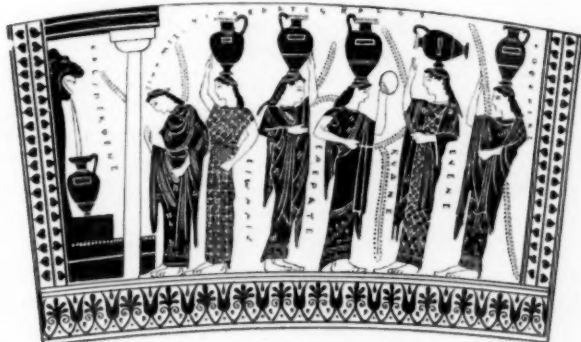


FIG. 1.

graphs.) These designs were taken from Greek vases. The upper group is from a red-figured hydria of the early fifth century. The men are "entering for the horse and chariot races." The original is in Munich. The middle group is from a red-figured cylix (drinking cup, with shallow bowl, two handles and base) of the early fifth century. The original is in the Edward Jekyll collection. The men on the left are wrestling, those on the right are marking out a course. The lower group, "racing in armor," is from a red-figured cylix in Berlin. (Source Book, p. 212, 358.)

Questions: 1. What can you learn about Greek games



FIG. 2.

from these vase decorations? 2. About Greek dress? 3. Trace the groups on white paper, paint the figures (the white portions) terra-cotta, the background black, with water colors. After the paint has dried, go over the black background with shellac. 4. How many horses are attached to the chariot? 5. Why is the driver represented as entering the chariot instead of standing in it? 6. Notice the skill with which the figures are grouped on the middle and lower vases and the varieties of graceful attitudes introduced. On the middle vase, the umpire and the wrestlers form one group, the youth on the right another, but the two figures on the right are turned toward the centre, and the umpire, or central figure, seems to bind the two groups together. Notice the grace in the pose of the figures. The manner in which the figures in the lower group are arranged is even more interesting. The interlacing of legs and arms not only gives the impression of rapid movement, but produces unity in the group. The central figure, with right arm extended, struggles to overtake the leader, meanwhile glancing over his shoulder at the man behind him. It is a lively portrayal of a race.

Pictures and Maps in History Teaching

BY J. C. DANA, LIBRARIAN OF THE FREE PUBLIC LIBRARY OF NEWARK, N. J.

This is not an account of how illustrative material is used in the class room. Not being a teacher, I must limit myself in speaking of methods of use to very general suggestions. In this article I try to tell briefly how the illustrative material of a certain public library, that of Newark, is arranged; how it is kept; how it was gathered; what it includes and what ground it covers; with general suggestions for its use in history.

All pictures less than 12"x16" in size are mounted, one to a sheet, on pieces 13"x17½", of light weight pulp board, a very inexpensive material of good color and surface. The subject of each picture is marked in plain letters on the upper left corner of the mount to which it is attached. The mounts thus labelled stand upright in boxes in the alphabetical order of the subjects written upon them, like cards in a card catalogue. The boxes are of wood, with covers of heavy cardboard. They stand on bases in long rows. The inside dimensions are 13½"x24"x18" high. 108 of them hold a total of about 22,000 mounted pictures and 75,000 clipped and unclassified but unmounted ones in manila wrappers.

Any carpenter can make these boxes, or a small collection mounted as described can quite conveniently lie upon a shelf in wrappers of manila paper, easily taken down and looked over. The essential point is that all mounts be of the same size, and that every mount carry one picture only.

The unmounted pictures are those which have been saved, in pulling apart magazines and books, but have not yet been called for sufficiently to warrant their being mounted. The wrappers are simply sheets of manila paper, folded until they are the size of the mounts above described, 13"x17½". Loose pictures are laid within and the subject which they cover is written in the upper left corner of the folded wrapper.

The wrappers are kept in the same alphabetical series with the mounted pictures; so that, for example, 40 mounts bearing pictures illustrating the life and times of Henry VIII may have immediately following them manila wrappers containing 100 more pictures on the same subject as yet unmounted.

The advantages of the box and the vertical position are economy of space and ease of examination. The method of keeping pictures which we employ could be adopted on a small scale in a high school or in a small library. For example: Two boxes, each 3 feet long, 18" high and 11" wide, inside dimensions, can stand on one end of an ordinary table, and the two will hold about 1,000 mounted pictures.

The Newark collection covers a very wide range. It has been about eight years in process of making. In the beginning it in-

cluded little more than the larger pictures taken from weekly illustrated journals, from monthly magazines and from discarded books. At first it was used chiefly by women's clubs. As it enlarged in quantity and broadened its scope to include designs, architectural pictures and other things, it came to be used more and more by the general public. Later its use by teachers was greatly enlarged until to-day it is perhaps used by them more than by any other class of borrowers. As its use extended the sources of supply were also broadened. Second-hand sets of art journals and fine art books, subscription publications and similar things, especially those slightly incomplete, were bought and pulled to pieces. Books of designs and decorations were treated in the same way. Inexpensive woodcuts and halftones in such collections as Harper's Black and White, and the Perry pictures were bought in quantities. Illustrated journals of all kinds taken by the library and not bound, after they had served their use in the reading room, were carefully looked over. Architectural journals, illustrated biographies and histories and many other things served to swell the lot.

Naturally as we have gone on and increased the size of the collection we have improved it in character. We reject to-day many pictures because they are too small or too indistinct or manifestly misleading, which, in the beginning of the collection, we would have saved and found useful.

As already indicated, these pictures are classified by subjects. There is no card index to them, for they index themselves. The classes stand in alphabetical order. The classification is, of course, constantly changing as the collection expands, and as demands for new things arise. A few of the several hundred classes under which the collection is arranged illustrate its scope:

Panama.	Posters.
Paper.	Poultry—fowls.
Pepper.	Printing.
Philippines.	Prisons.
Photography.	Pulpits.
Physiology.	Quarrying—Granite.
Pirates.	Race of man—
Plants.	subdivided.
Playgrounds.	Railways.
Polar regions.	Rainbow.
Portraits, A to Z.	Reptiles.

Pictures are lent just as are books. A visitor either looks over the collection and selects those he wishes or sends in a request for pictures on a certain subject and has them made ready against his call.

A great many groups of pictures on the same subject have been built up with special care for special purposes, and it is these groups that prove particularly interesting

to teachers of history. As may be supposed, the pictures as a whole are used to illustrate not only lessons in history, but also lessons in biography, nature study, geography, literature and other subjects. They are used in the lower grades for subjects of compositions and as texts for stories. A great many of them are excellent reproductions of works of art: buildings, sculptures, paintings, etc., and these, of course, are used in art studies, not only in schools, but by the public generally.

Within recent years a very few historic pictures have been reproduced for school use in this country. England has done a little more on this line; France perhaps more than England. Meanwhile, in Germany the growth of the publication of pictures for school and the development of their use has exceeded the like growth and development in all other countries combined.

Every teacher of history, especially every teacher of history in a high school should secure and become familiar with the contents of the great catalogue of German pedagogic material. This catalogue, called *Bibliotheca Paedagogica*, forms a book which with its supplement, has more than 600 closely printed pages, with hundreds of illustrations. It lists not only the textbooks used in German schools and colleges, but all allied material for teaching also, including chemical, and physical apparatus, and pictures on hundreds of subjects, on every topic, one may almost say, found in a school curriculum. Fortunately, moreover, the character of much of the material aside from books is suggested by illustrations. These illustrations give an excellent idea of the pictorial material which the history teacher may secure for his school, or through his local public library, for lending to his school.

They are largely lithographs, some black and white, but chiefly in color. They range in size from 5"x8" to 36"x48". They cover not only geography and almost every branch of science, but also and more especially biography and history. They include historic buildings, historic events, street scenes in cities, ancient and modern, costumes, portraits, etc., etc.

Of this German educational picture material the Newark library has collected about 500 items. Each picture is mounted on heavy cardboard and bound with black cloth, and so treated that it may be easily hung in a class room. Like those in the "picture collection" proper, they are lent on application.

Although the English publications in this line are not equal to the German in quantity and quality, some of them are excellent. The library has acquired some of the best of them.

It should be noted that all these litho-

graphs, both English and German, are quite inexpensive, the price running from 25 to 75 cents. A school or a library can import them duty free. It seems not to the credit of American educational workers that this material, especially that from Germany, is not only not used in this country; but seems generally not even to be known.

A rather recent development in the way of illustrative educational material is found in maps and charts. These are of many sizes and styles and include not only inexpensive modern political maps; but historical ones as well, plans of ancient cities, maps showing the development of empires, etc., etc. Of these the library has made quite a large collection, all mounted like the lithographs.

To suggest how all this illustrative material may be used in the teaching of history and allied subjects let me describe briefly a few typical groups.

Thackeray. This group includes 87 items; of these 14 are portraits of Thackeray himself; 20 are portraits of friends, acquaintances and eminent men of his time; 34 are scenes or characters in Thackeray's novels; 9 are reproductions of Thackeray's own drawings or of his own handwriting, and 10

are miscellaneous; making a total such as can be found in no one volume. Many of the pictures are quite large and a few of them quite rare.

Cromwell. This particular group includes 17 portraits of Cromwell.

England, History: Anglo-Saxon period: Large wall pictures, 10.

Small pictures: Life and customs, 20; costume, 10; street scenes, 8; Saxon ships, 5; portraits, 20; Saxon houses, interiors, etc., 7.

England, History: Queen Anne:

Large wall pictures, 5.

Small pictures: Portraits and houses of prominent people of the time, 25; furniture, 10; costume, 6; architecture, 8; life and customs, 15; incidents, 15; castles, palaces, 10; portraits of artists with illustrations of their work, 16.

France, History: Louis XIV:

Portraits, 15; Versailles and other buildings, 10; furniture, 7; interiors, 6; costume, 5; decoration and ornament, 8; architecture, 5; incidents, 4; court life, 4.

Many of the illustrations in the picture collection proper are large enough to be seen well when hung upon the wall. In

many cases, however, a teacher takes a group of pictures illustrating a certain period of history, or the life of a certain individual, or the characteristics of a certain country, or the costumes and customs of a certain epoch, and, instead of hanging them on the wall, passes them from hand to hand about the class, or posts them where the class can consult them between recitations.

The lithographs illustrating, as already stated, persons, historical scenes, buildings, castles, fortifications, etc., are too large to pass from hand to hand but can be seen well at a distance. These are usually hung on a class room hall.

About the help which this material can give to the teacher of history, I can say little. Our experience indicates, however, that all teachers who try it find it exceeding useful. As with other departures from the ordinary routine, it is only the energetic and ambitious instructor who will trouble himself with the burden of learning how to secure a new tool, or how to use it. It seems that those teachers who impose on themselves the labor of becoming acquainted with the possibilities of illustrative material in history teaching, find the results fully compensate for the efforts made.

History in the Secondary Schools

Is Revision of the Course of Study in History Desirable?

SUMMARY OF THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF FIVE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Through the courtesy of the Macmillan Co., publishers, the writer has had the opportunity of inspecting the proof sheets of the Report of the Committee of Five of the American Historical Association upon the Study of History in Secondary Schools. The committee was appointed by the Council of the American Historical Association at the Madison meeting in 1907, and was composed of Professor Andrew C. McLaughlin, Chairman; Professor Charles H. Haskins, Professor James H. Robinson, Professor Charles W. Mann, and Doctor James Sullivan. Mr. Mann, who had given much attention to the problems before the committee, died in the spring of 1909.

The report is a comparatively brief document, comprising, with a short introduction, seventy-two pages, and treats the subject of the teaching of history in a more general way than did the Report of the Committee of Seven. A criticism of the report would not be in place at the present time, and indeed is not needed. What teachers of history wish is a knowledge of the recommendations of the committee. Accordingly an analysis of the report is given below.

There are twelve divisions of the report. These are summarized in the order in which they occur in the original.

I.

The report first takes up the relation of the Committee of Five to the Committee of

Seven, stating that two persons were members of both committees, but also asserting that they have made a new study of the conditions in the schools, and have entered once again into a careful consideration of the history curriculum; yet the Report of the Committee of Seven was necessarily the starting point for the new committee, as the latter had been appointed to determine what modifications, if any, were needed in the recommendations of the earlier committee. Consequently the present report not only contains recommendations for change, but also calls attention to those parts of the work of the preceding committee which have been most helpful and useful.

II.

Attention is next called to the position occupied by the Report of the Committee of Seven, particularly to the success of the report in judging the general situation and in recommending steps that the schools were prepared to take. From one side of the continent to the other, courses were fashioned with deference to the report of the committee. It affected not only the curriculum but also the method, and even the aims of history teaching, and its natural result has been to bring about an approximate uniformity in the history curricula in the schools throughout the country.

III.

The committee next considers the present situation of history teaching. The commit-

tee itself had been appointed as the result of a petition from the Head Masters' Association, proposing certain changes in the Report of the Committee of Seven. Before considering or adopting the proposed changes the committee considered anew the whole subject. It sent circulars of inquiry to history teachers in all sections of the country, it discussed secondary school curricula at meetings of the American Historical Association and of local history teachers' associations. As a result of these investigations, certain conditions were evident.

(1) Although the recommendations of the Committee of Seven in favor of a four years' high school course in history were sharply criticised ten years ago, yet, as a matter of fact, about one-half of the ninety schools, replying to the committee's inquiry, reported that they were giving four years or more to history. The committee accordingly expresses its opinion that four years of history are needed and should be offered where conditions permit.

(2) While it is not easy to ascertain just how far school curricula have been shaped in accordance with the Report of the Committee of Seven, the investigation shows that many school programmes consciously or unconsciously have been brought into accord with its recommendations. In one case, that of abandoning the single year general history course and split-

ting up the work into blocks of several periods, extending over several years, the recommendations of the committee have received almost universal application.

(3) It was difficult to determine the sentiment of teachers concerning the field of Ancient history. Conditions in the western schools differ from those prevailing in eastern schools, preparing students for college entrance examinations. In general however, the committee felt that the majority of teachers are not discontented with the length of the Ancient history field, and that the inclusion of Oriental history and of the period down to 800 A. D. was not a mistake.

(4) On the subject of Medieval and Modern history there was a distinct majority of schools desirous of emphasizing Modern history. Sixty-four schools out of ninety-seven were in favor of placing more emphasis on the modern period.

(5) The relation between United States history and Civil Government and the extent to which government could be taught in direct connection with history was one of the topics investigated by the committee and one which showed marked differences of opinion. The committee had difficulty in making an analysis of the answers upon this subject, as there were not only two extreme forms of opinion, but gradations between these two. The analysis appeared to show that forty-one schools favored teaching the two subjects together in a course called American history and Civil Government, thirty-two schools preferred separate courses, and twenty-three partly followed the plan of teaching the two together. The committee thought that the need was not so much for regulating divisions, or method, as for sufficient time to do both subjects profitably.

(6) Inquiry whether the Committee of Seven had laid undue stress upon comprehensive and generalized knowledge and unduly neglected matters specific and detailed, produced answers clearly in favor of the report, only eleven thought that the committee had laid too much stress on comprehensive and generalized knowledge, sixty-six did not think so, and nineteen were noncommittal.

(7) The investigation showed that there was a wide use of illustrative material in the history class, and an earnest desire to use as much as could profitably be used, and a sense of the value of source material as illustrative material.

IV.

"The most important factor in the school room is not the curricula, the text, or not even the method, but the teacher." This sentence introduces the next topic of the committee: the teacher and the material for his use. The committee strongly asserts the need of better prepared teachers, and urges that superintendents and school trus-

tees should give to teachers sufficient time to prepare their lessons and to seek out illustrative material.

V.

The division of the world's history into periods to be studied through three or four years of the high school course as recommended by the Committee of Seven in place of the old courses in general history, is upheld by the new report. Even if it were possible, says the Committee of Five, for exceptionally able teachers under advantageous circumstances to give an adequate view of the world's history in a single year, yet the result would be secured at the expense of something more valuable,—training and insight and comprehension.

On the other hand, the new committee does not agree with those teachers who believe the periods suggested by the Committee of Seven are too extensive to be covered in one year. The trouble with teachers urging such objections lies in their trying to cover the whole range of history with a layer of information of uniform thickness. They should, by wise omissions and clever condensations in some portions of the field, give time to plough deeper in other places. Such a process of omission and condensation, of emphasis and clarification is a process that tries the teacher's soul, but it is the essential element of good teaching.

What shall be done in cases where only three years can be given to the study of history? The simplest solution is to omit altogether one block of history, and for inexperienced teachers it may be the wisest course. But the committee thinks that it is possible to give the substance of the world's history in a three-year course. In such a three-year course American history cannot be omitted, as its lessons are too immediate. If Ancient history be omitted from the formal plan, at least a general survey of ancient civilization should be given at the opening of the course in Medieval history. If Ancient history be included, followed by European history, then the medieval period should be treated only in an introductory fashion, and time be gained to include the salient facts of English history in the European field. If, finally, the combination be Ancient history and English history, then the chief phases of European history should be brought out in connection with English history.

VI.

The course in Ancient history is next considered by the committee. It supports the preceding committee in favoring both the inclusion of Oriental history at the beginning of the year and of European history to about 800 A.D. at the close of the Ancient history course; and it endorses the emphasis upon the Hellenistic period and upon the Roman Empire as the culmination of Ancient history and the starting-point of later development. Replying to the objection that the course in Ancient history

was already full and nothing more should be added, the committee urge a radical revision of the entire subject-matter of Ancient history. Its content, shaped by tradition, and filled with constitutional and military details, should be reconstructed. For instance, in Athenian history the early development should be disregarded and the effort concentrated upon the essential workings of Athenian democracy in the Periclean age. In Roman history the study should begin where our authentic sources begin, that is, at the close of the fourth century, B.C., and no attempt should be made to reconstruct the institutions of the regal period, or the supposed struggle between the plebeians and patricians. The war with Pyrrhus and the Punic Wars should be treated as pieces of Mediterranean history rather than of local Italian history. The legends of early Rome, if introduced at all, should be used as illustrating the character and ideals of the Romans.

By such a process of selection time can be found for the earlier and later periods of Ancient history; "and no course on Ancient history, however elementary, ought to omit some reference to the Middle Ages which come after, as well as to the Oriental nations which went before." Particularly is it important to show the connection between ancient and modern times in the transitional centuries of the Roman Empire. The period between Constantine and Charlemagne, should be studied both in the course on Ancient history and in that on Medieval and Modern history; in the first case the emphasis being put upon the Roman elements, and in the other upon the Medieval and German elements.

But are first-year high school pupils too immature for the study of Ancient history? Not if Ancient history is made simpler and less abstract; not if more attention is paid to great men, and less to the history of institutions; not if meaningless wars and constitutional details are omitted and time thereby gained for easy, familiar talks upon the great deeds and achievements of antiquity. Colleges, furthermore, should not require in their examinations, that the work in all subjects be of a character only possible in the higher years of the course, or that necessitates a cramming process in the fourth year.

VII.

Following up the last thought, the report next considers "mere memory" work, a form of history teaching which, if adopted, would leave slight argument in favor of the retention of history in the curriculum. The pupils should, of course, be accurate, painstaking, and thorough; learning well a reasonable amount from the text; but also they should learn how to use books and how to read them, how to think upon historical facts, and perhaps even to see the relation between evidence and historical statement. If a pupil can be trained to think, and not merely learn by rote, in physics, English,

and geometry, he should be able to think in history without peril of losing hold on truth or of gaining a love for indistinctness and uncertainty.

If pupils entering college have a fondness for vague misinformation this surely cannot be attributed to the teacher's endeavor to stimulate his pupils to read, or to incite them to think—unless in his enthusiasm he forget the danger of discussion without knowledge. "It is all a matter of good judgment and good teaching. On either side there is difficulty and danger; on the one side, slavish adherence to a text and the loss of interest and training; on the other, distraction, incoherence, vague uncertainty, and possibly ignorant enthusiasm. The teacher of history has an incomparably difficult task; but we believe that a reasonable effort should be made to get the best results by avoiding both of the extremes."

Even when there is a paucity of material outside the text-book or little time for collateral reading, yet the teacher may in many ways add to the value of history class work. Oral and written exercises upon material from different parts of the text, or facts studied at different times can be made to supplement the text-books. Comparisons of historical personages and of political movements, or analyses of processes of development will encourage frequent reviews and give practice in using knowledge which has been gained. While therefore, the pupil should get more out of his study of history than the memory of a certain modicum of facts, which, when examination comes, he can faithfully reproduce; yet, on the other hand, he should be "taught to know clearly, strongly, and well the essential facts of history."

VIII.

Next the committee discusses the much vexed question of the relation of the study of government to the study of American history. Referring in a kindly way to the report of the committee of the Political Science Association which strongly opposed the combination of the two subjects, the committee quotes at length from certain sections in the report of the Committee of Seven which have frequently been misconstrued. Stating its own opinion, the committee says, "we do not think that the two subjects, despite their interdependence, should be so taught as to crowd out government or give insufficient time for its proper study. . . . the schools have the clear duty of giving full instruction on the essentials of American government and practical politics." Yet to separate the workings of political institutions through the decades of the last century from the institutions we have to-day, would be entirely without justification, and worse than profitless. Much of our national constitutional system can be effectively presented by a proper and wise correlation between American history and actual institutions.

But a satisfactory knowledge of state and local government and of party organization cannot be gained from the study of American history alone. Such subjects require separate treatment, which, from the daily value of the subjects, should not be hurried or vague.

The real need is for more time; if that could be gained the subjects should be taught in separate courses, but so taught as to take advantage of relationships and interdependence. School administrators should give these subjects "the time they need in the school curriculum, and if shearing and clipping must be done somewhere, let the operation be applied to subjects that are not the best and most immediate subjects for preparing boys and girls for citizenship."

Facing the actual conditions, however, the committee recommends that the pressure upon American history in the fourth year be lightened by dealing with Colonial history in connection with English and modern European history. Two-fifths of the time in the fourth year should be devoted to separate work in government and three-fifths to the course in history, the two subjects being continued throughout the year.

IX.

The committee noticed a growing interest in the study of modern history, and expressed its hearty approval of this feeling.

"Why should we know of Frederick Barbarossa, or Innocent III, and be ignorant of their great successors? Surely Pitt and Palmerston and Gladstone are more significant to us than are Athelstane or Thomas à Becket."

To meet this need the committee does not recommend an immediate and universal rearrangement of courses. While an emphasis upon modern history, and a corresponding rearrangement of courses is desirable, the committee considers such a radical rearrangement a serious matter not to be entered upon except with a full understanding of what the change involves. To obtain the greater amount of time necessary for modern history the committee suggests either the abridgement of the medieval period in European and English history,—and the use again of the remedy of condensation and omission; or the establishment of a new course in modern history.

X.

The adoption of the last plan would lead to a new schedule of history courses, arranged by the committee as follows:

A. Ancient history to 800 A.D. or thereabouts, the events of the last five hundred years to be passed over rapidly.

B. English history, beginning with a brief statement of England's connection with the ancient world; then tracing the main line of English development to 1760; and including the chief facts of general European history, especially before 1600,

and something of the Colonial history of America.

C. Modern European history, including introductory matter upon later medieval institutions and a suitable treatment of English history from 1760.

D. American history and government, with two-fifths of the time throughout the year devoted to the separate treatment of government.

XI.

The committee believes the time has come when many schools can introduce the requirement of three years of history from every pupil, and that, of the sixteen or seventeen units offered in the ordinary course, three shall be taken in history. This suggestion does not come from a desire to increase the college entrance work in history, but rather to provide for those leaving school at the end of the high school course a knowledge of history which will fit them for their work in society and give them a basis for satisfaction in the intellectual life.

XII.

In schools giving commercial, technical and industrial education, the committee recommends that courses in modern history and in American history and government be given. While economics and commercial geography may be correlated with such courses, and while some industrial history may be introduced, yet these two courses in history should be given from the historical viewpoint. It is not unlikely that history will be the only, or almost the only, non-technical, non-occupational study offered in such schools.

[The Study of History in Secondary Schools. Report to the American Historical Association by a Committee of Five. New York. 1911. The Macmillan Co. pp. 72. Price not stated.]

Frontispiece

The Greek vases shown on the first page of this issue have been added recently to the collections of the Metropolitan Museum, New York, and they are here reproduced through the kindness of the authorities of the Museum.

The tall vase (Fig. 2) is a white Athenian Lekythos of the period 465-460 B.C. The figure is that of an Amazon throwing a stone from a sling. She wears high shoes, and a short chiton, over which an animal's skin is worn like a breast-plate.

The two smaller vases (Figs. 1, 3) are wide-mouthed Amphorae, with vertical handles in the Attic geometric style. This is a post-Mycenean product which probably took the place of the Mycenean ware. Today it is called Dipylon ware, because the first finds were made near the Dipylon gate of Athens. (For further details see "Bulletin of the Metropolitan Museum of Art" for February, 1911, Vol. VI, No. 2.)

Periodical Literature

HENRY L. CANNON, PH.D., EDITOR.

(Conducted with the co-operation of the class in current literature of Leland Stanford, Jr. University. Contributions suitable for this department will be welcomed. Address Box 999, Stanford University, California.)

—"Chatham and his Latest Biographer (Rosebery)," by Harold W. V. Temperley, is in "The Contemporary Review" for February.

—Francis Swiney writes in the "Westminster Review" for February upon "The Ancient Faith of the Celt and Briton."

—In the same Review, at the hands of Forrest Reid, appears the account of a trial of witches which took place at Bury St. Edmunds, in 1665, before Sir Matthew Hale, the Lord Chief Baron, and at which Sir Thomas Browne, the author of "Religio Medici," testified.

—"The National Geographic Magazine" for January contains an illustrated article upon "Damascus the Pearl of the Desert." In speaking of the various tombs the writer, A. Forder, of Jerusalem, remarks: "In many of the mausoleums of these worthies are stored heaps of valuable manuscripts which, if searched and translated, might add valuable information to the history of the Orient."

—The "Revue Historique" (Jan.-Feb.) contains an article by A. J. Reinach upon Early Civilizations, based upon the recent work of J. de Morgan of whom he says: "He possessed the rare advantage of being able to unite to the knowledge of the specialist in Oriental history that of a geologist and of an ethnographer."

—"The Highways of England, their Growth and Relation to Civics," by George Montagu (Sociological Review, January) is a careful study of highways in relation to the rise and fall of centers of population.

—The "Historische Zeitschrift" (III, x, 2) contains a discussion by Richard Sternfeld, of "The Deviations and Diversions of the Crusades," as of the turning of the Fourth Crusade upon Constantinople.

—"The Iowa Journal of History and Politics" for January publishes the address read at Iowa City, May 30, 1910, by General John Howard Stibbs upon "Andersonville and the Trial of Henry Wirz." General Stibbs was a member of the court that tried Captain Wirz.

—Pierre Dubois and Emeric Crucé, "Two Precursors of Peace and International Arbitration" are considered in the "Revue d'Histoire Diplomatique" for January by M. Mil. R. Veauitch. Dubois, or de Bosco, was a pupil of Thomas Aquinas; Crucé flourished in the early portion of the seventeenth century.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

NOTES.

Mr. C. A. Prosser, Deputy Commissioner of Education in Massachusetts, is chairman of the newly organized Committee on Course of Study of the New England Association. This committee is to consider the question of economics and industrial history in the secondary schools.

Professor Arthur D. S. Gillett, of the Superior, Wisconsin, Normal School, has been chosen chairman of the Wisconsin History Teachers' Association.

A committee on the certification of high school teachers of history has been appointed by the American Historical Association: Professor Dana C. Munro, of the University of Wisconsin, is chairman, the other members are Calvin C. Kendall, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis; R. A. Maurer, Central High School, Washington; D. C.; K. C. Babcock, Bureau of Education, Washington; and Professor Edgar Dawson, Normal College of the City of New York.

Professor Sidney B. Fay has just returned to Dartmouth, after leave of absence for one semester, having spent the time in Berlin, in work upon a biography of the Great Elector, to appear in a series edited by him, entitled "Makers of Modern Germany."

NORTH CENTRAL MEETING.

The annual meeting of the North Central Association will be held on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday, May 18, 19, and 20, in Evanston and Chicago. It is to be a joint meeting with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, the Illinois State Historical Association, the Chicago Historical Society, and the Evanston Historical Society. Professor J. A. James, of the Northwestern University, is chairman of the committee on the program and local arrangements. The preliminary program will be sent out about the middle of April, and will be printed in the May issue of the Magazine. The North Central Association will have charge of the program for Saturday, and progress is being made under Professor James A. Woodburn, President of the Association.

PACIFIC COAST BRANCH.

The eighth annual session has been called for March 31 and April 1, at the University of California. The program provides for four meetings, including two general meetings, the annual dinner, and a teachers' session for the discussion of historical geography. Among the speakers are Professors R. F. Scholz, H. E. Bolton, H. Morse Stephens, Bernard Moses, B. E. Howard, F. J. Teggart, F. C. Woodward, Don E. Smith, Miss M. F. Stevens, and Messrs. W. J. Cooper and A. H. Abbott.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The joint meeting of the annual May Conference, at Dartmouth, and the New England History Teachers' Association will be held at Hanover, N. H., on either May 11-13 or 18-20. The tentative program is as follows: Thursday evening, address by Professor George L. Burr, of Cornell, "The Ethical Opportunity of the Teacher of History," followed by an informal reception; Friday morning, discussion of the readjustment of the four courses in history in accordance with the recommendations of the Report of the Committee of Five of the American Historical Association ("The Study of History in Schools," to be published by Macmillan, in April); Friday noon, luncheon in College Hall, tendered by the college to visiting teachers; Friday afternoon, discussion of college entrance requirements; the College Entrance Examination Board, the New England College Certificate Board, the new method of entrance at Harvard. The New England History Teachers' Association, which has accepted an invitation to meet with the college, will assume charge of the program for Friday evening and Saturday morning; Friday evening, an address, followed by an informal reception; Saturday morning, conference on the subject of "Outside Reading. Notes and Note-taking," an address followed by statements of actual experience by six teachers in the secondary schools.

Special rates will be given by the Hanover Inn, which will be the headquarters for the New England History Teachers' Association and others attending the Conference.

Special rates of about a fare and a third have in former years been granted by the Boston & Maine, and Central Vermont Railroads to those attending these annual conferences, and it is hoped the same reduction will be granted this year.

All teachers or others interested in the teaching of history, or civil government are cordially invited to attend and join in the discussions of this joint conference of Dartmouth, the New England History Teachers' Association and secondary school teachers.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The Ninth Annual Convention of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland was held at Washington, D. C., on Friday and Saturday, March 10th and 11th. The meeting was not so largely attended as some of the recent meetings of the Association, but it proved a very interesting one, and one in which several new features were introduced.

The discussion on Friday afternoon was upon the topic of "Economics in High Schools." Dr. John L. Tildsley, of the De-

Witt Clinton High School, New York City, spoke upon "Aims and Methods of High School Economics." Dr. Tildsley urged that the primary aim of courses in economics should be the mental discipline rather than the facts of the economic world obtained from the course. The students should not be taught to memorize economic facts, but rather to reason clearly, logically and closely about these facts. Economics in the high school is often taught by philanthropists or social reformers who try to make converts to the single tax theory or to free trade, or to socialism. Such proselyting should be eliminated from the course. The text-book is necessary in the course, and should be clear and well organized. The class should not be conducted upon the lecture method, which is entirely out of place in high school work. There should be great emphasis upon clear definitions and frequent discussion under, however, the control of the teacher. The teacher should hold fast to the economic facts of life, and he can greatly aid his class by intelligent thought questions based upon the life of the community in which the students live. Dr. Tildsley followed this general discussion with a description of the course in economics in the High School of Commerce

in New York City, a subject which was described by Mr. A. L. Pugh and Dr. James Sheppard in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for December, 1909, and January, 1910.

On Friday evening the members of the Association met at dinner at the Ebbitt House, and at the close of the dinner, Professor J. T. Shotwell, of Columbia University, talked upon the "Social Point of View in the Study and Teaching of History." Professor Shotwell took as an illustration of the necessity for more detailed study of economic conditions of the past, the industrial revolution, which to his mind was one of the greatest facts in the world's history. Yet the industrial revolution is passed over with very little, if any, comment by school text-books, and by the authors of several great histories recently published. The Cambridge Modern History, the Political History of England, and other recent works were mentioned by Professor Shotwell as instances of the ignoring of the economic background. Dr. J. Franklin Jameson, of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, mentioned the great difficulty of obtaining the sources for economic history, and the greater certainty which attaches to the documents and records of political history.

On Saturday morning Mrs. Ellen Spencer Mussey, Dean of the Washington College of Law, and Vice-President of the Board of Education of Washington, gave an address upon Historical Washington, in which she sketched in a happy manner the origin of the District of Columbia, and the growth of its institutions, and gave an account of the interesting historical facts in connection with many of the public buildings of the District of Columbia.

After the address the members were taken for an automobile trip about Washington, and then were entertained at luncheon at the Library of Congress by the Washington members and friends of the Association. At the business meeting which followed the luncheon, the following officers were chosen: President, Dr. James Sullivan, Boys' High School, Brooklyn; Vice-President, Miss Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia; Secretary-Treasurer, Henry Johnson, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City. Additional members of the Council, Professor John M. Vincent, Johns Hopkins University; Professor W. E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania; Mr. C. B. Newton, Lawrenceville, N. J.; Mrs. Barbour Walker, New York City.

Aids to the Teaching of History

A Descriptive Catalogue of the Collection of the New England History Teachers' Association

BY PROFESSOR ARTHUR I. ANDREWS, SIMMONS COLLEGE, BOSTON, CHAIRMAN OF COMMITTEE.

The collection of historical material of the New England History Teachers' Association is located at Simmons College, in the Fenway, Boston, reached from Copley Square by Huntington Avenue, or by Boylston Street and Brookline Avenue. The main building of the college is not far from the Boston Museum of Fine Arts and the Harvard Medical School.

The college building is open at all times, but owing to the fact that classes hold sessions in the rooms occupied by the collection, teachers are urged to visit the college between 3.30 and 6 on weekdays, or at any time Saturdays. Admission to the building can be gained on Sundays or outside the regular college hours by pressing the electric button at the front entrance.

The arrangement of the collection is as follows:

Office of the committee, Room 133.

American History, second floor, Rooms 225 and 223.

Ancient History, second floor, Rooms 228 and 226.

English History, second floor, Room 223.

Continental European History, second floor, Room 229.

Economic History, second floor, Room 223.

Africa and Asia, first floor, Room 133.

Casts, models, atlases and books at end of the hall on the second floor. Catalogues of the material and of the collection can also be obtained there and at Room 133.

All visitors are earnestly requested to register at Room 133 or Room 215.

In arranging this catalogue five main sections were assigned to the material belonging to American, Ancient, English, Continental European, Economic history, and one section to that material common to all these fields, the General and Miscellaneous. In this general section is listed material concerning the whole world:

1st. Maps of world, of hemispheres, and of continents, series of maps.

2nd. Globes.

3rd. General atlases.

4th. Series of outline maps. (Not black-board or wall maps, for which see other divisions. Outline atlases and historical notebooks.

5th. Series of pictures, not belonging particularly to any special field of history.

In practically every case, the objects upon exhibition are the

property of this association. Loans have been received only upon the understanding that the objects loaned were to be replaced from time to time by new or fresh material. Material marked S. C. belongs to Simmons College, but is upon exhibition to visitors along with the material belonging to the association.

It has been necessary to abbreviate the names of publishers or agents. The full names and addresses are, however, given in the Directory at the end of the catalogue. In the catalogue itself only such information as seemed most necessary has been given, such as the names of publishers and agents, the series, size, and price. On the other hand, the committee is endeavoring to secure all possible information about all kinds of historical material and will be glad to answer questions. Requests for the catalogues of the dealers should be sent direct to them, since they are prepared to give special attention to those interested in this collection.

The prices for maps or wall-pictures are for the most inexpensive examples, unless otherwise stated. Such material can be furnished by dealers with spring-rollers or in cases. The discounts quoted apply only on orders direct to the publishers or general agents. Outline maps lack the names of places, but generally have the natural features indicated and sometimes named. The most important and larger ones have been listed in the special sections, the smaller or lesser important in the general and miscellaneous group.

It was found possible to catalogue all the large wall pictures in the special sections. In a few cases where it seemed important, enough cross references were made.

Chronological charts have been listed separately. Historical charts upon standards and forming a series of maps, with or without text or tables, have been placed under maps.

Attention is called to the fact that the United States Government and the Canadian Government issue many maps which would be of great assistance to teachers and which can be secured at little or nothing.

Very little attempt has been made, so far, to increase the exhibit of atlases and illustrated books. These departments have developed, almost of themselves, until recently, but now a sub-committee is working out their possibilities. This is also true of lantern slides, a few of which, illustrating American history are now in the collection.

It has not been possible to include in this catalogue the large number of source-books and foreign list-books, forming a minor part of its collection.

The foreign models are all catalogued in the section devoted to Continental European History. Further notes and suggestions concerning them are given there. The committee is endeavoring to make this part of the exhibition more representative and comprehensive. The results of its work will appear in later reports.

The Economic section has not been developed as extensively as it will be. Much of the material scattered through the other sections could, however, be classed also, under "aids to the teaching of economics."

Special attention is called to the movement, developed during the past year, and now well under way, toward supplying teachers of American history with a series of historical maps and of historical wall pictures, both from originals. A study of the American section will reveal additions of this kind.

Further information as to the work of the committee and additions to this collection will be given annually in the reports of the New England History Teachers' Association.

The committee gratefully acknowledges the great assistance received from the students of the Senior Class in the Library School at Simmons College, by whom the largest part of the cataloguing was completed.

AMERICAN HISTORY.

Maps.

Fac-similes of Old Historical American Maps. Edited by Samuel Abbott. Printed on the sheet with each map are references to authoritative works that cover the period in question. The University Co.

1. The 1520 map of Apianus, showing the "dream of Columbus" of a passage between the Americas to Asia. 16 $\frac{1}{4}$ x12 in. Unmounted, \$1.00. Mounted, \$1.25. Mounted with text, \$1.50.
2. The early seventeenth century map of Blaeu, of Amsterdam. Dates back prior to 1615, as it gives only Virginia as an English foothold on the continent. The eastern shore line is rich with evidence of the efforts of the Spanish explorers. 22x16 $\frac{1}{4}$ in. Unmounted, \$1.75. Mounted, \$2.25. Mounted with text, \$2.50.
3. A map of New England and New York, from the John Speed atlas of 1676, with curious text describing the territory, native Indians, and animals. 14 $\frac{1}{4}$ x14 $\frac{3}{4}$ in. Price, Unmounted, \$1.50. Mounted, \$2.00. Mounted with text, \$2.25.
4. "A new and exact map of the Dominions of the King of Great Britain on ye Continent of North America. Containing Newfoundland, New Scotland, New England, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and Carolina." By Moll, 1715. Contains a view of the "Cataract of Niagara," with beavers at work below the falls; a detailed account of the colonial "Posts of ye Continent of North America according as they are regulated by ye Postmasters general," etc. (in preparation.)
5. The Herman Moll map, of 1720, derived from French sources, exhibiting the French claims in North America. With contemporary data. 41x42 $\frac{1}{2}$ in. Unmounted, \$2.50. Mounted, \$3.50. Mounted with text, \$3.75.
6. The d'Anville map, "Canada, Louisiane et Terres Angloises," published in Paris in 1755. Has caustic comments on the French claims, made by Bolton, an Englishman. (In preparation.)
7. "A General Map of the Middle British Colonies in America, etc." A campaign map of the French and Indian war. Though dated by Lewis Evans, the first American cartographer of note, 1755, it shows the name of T. Jefferys, 1758, and was brought up to that date "By I. Gibson." (In preparation.)
8. "The Seat of War in New England," by an American Volunteer, with the Marches of the Several Corps sent by the Colonies Towards Boston, with the Attack on Bunker Hill, London, Sept. 1, 1775. The preliminary stage of the Revolutionary War. 21 $\frac{1}{2}$ x18 in. Unmounted, \$2.50. Mounted, \$3.00. Mounted with text, \$3.25.

The Ives Historical Map. A Mechanical Contrivance for Illustrating the Growth of the United States of America. By James T. B. Ives, F.G.S. Hammett.

The territorial growth of the United States is illustrated by consecutive diagrams, mounted in a glazed frame 34x24 inches, with movable keys that bring the segments into view successively. James T. B. Ives, 340 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y. \$15.00 complete.

Description: The colored segments being withdrawn, the government river map shows the virgin country before European occupation, the locations of the Indian tribal groups, and the actual

settlements of English colonists, French military and trading posts, and the Spanish towns on the Florida coast in the west.

With the first key, a colored segment slides into view, representing the sixteen states corresponding to the thirteen original colonies.

The second key brings into view a segment differing in color from the first, and representing the territory beyond the western boundaries of those states and east of the Mississippi river, which France contended for, and finally surrendered to England by treaty in 1763; which England thereupon denied to the colonies until the treaty of 1783; just twenty years later.

The third key brings into view Louisiana. In the same way each accession to the territory of the United States down to the Gadsden purchase of 1853, is shown by a segment which assumes its proper position upon the map by a pressure upon its special key.

North America.

The Sydow-Habenicht Physical Wall Maps. Rand, McNally. 59x67 in. (Spring roller, steel case), \$10.80.
Stanford's Orographical Maps. Rand, McNally. 52x60 in. (Spring roller, steel case). \$9.60, net.
Grand Series. Johnston. Babb. 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ x4 ft. \$2.25, net.
Peerless Series. Bardeen, 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x3 ft. \$4.00, list.
Peerless Outline Series. Scarborough. Bardeen. 1904. 3x4 $\frac{1}{2}$ ft. \$4.00, list.
Bacon's Excelsior Map. Hammett. 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ x4 ft. 10 in. \$2.25, net.
Universal Series. Rand, McNally. 1908-9. 41x58 in. \$.80, net.
Columbia Series. Rand, McNally. 46x66 in. \$3.50, net.
Globe Series. Rand, McNally. 41x52 in. \$2.00, net.

Canada.

Canada, Atlas. Sheets published as separate maps. Department of Interior, Canada. \$.10 each.
No. 28. Relief Map, west sheet. 19x4 in.
No. 29. Showing aborigines of Canada, Alaska and Greenland. 15x9 in.
No. 30. International, interprovincial boundaries. (5 maps.) 6x5 $\frac{1}{2}$; 16 $\frac{1}{2}$ x9; 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ x4 $\frac{1}{2}$; 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ x5 $\frac{1}{2}$; 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ x6 $\frac{1}{2}$.
No. 31. International and interprovincial boundaries. (2 maps.) 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ x5; 14x11.
No. 32. Showing routes of explorers. 21x15.
No. 33. Showing drainage basins. 21x15.
Relief Map of Dominion. 1904. 36x4 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.
Map showing elevators in Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta. 1910. 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ x34 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.
Map showing acreage of cereals per township in Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta. 1909. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ x3 $\frac{1}{2}$ ft.
Map of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta. 3 sections. Special edition showing lands finally disposed of, to January 1, 1910. Each section 2ft.x3 ft.
Quebec: Wolfe's Quebec Campaign of 1759. (3 maps.) Burrows Bros. Co. 1906.

Sets of Maps.

Blodgett's Topical Studies in U. S. History, 56 charts with maps and illustrations. Bardeen. 1897. About 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ x3 ft. Price, with supporter.

- 1st Epoch. Discovery.
- 2nd Epoch. Settlement.
- 3rd Epoch. Revolutionary War.
- 4th Epoch. Development of States.
- 5th Epoch. Civil War.
- 6th Epoch. Reconstruction of the Union.

Miscellaneous tables.

Foster Historical Chart (Maps). Rand, McNally & Company. New York and Chicago. 1907. Size, 2x3 ft. Price, with supporter, \$20.00, list.

1. Early Explorers and Discoverers.
2. Spanish Explorations.
3. French Explorations. Dutch and Swedes in America.
4. London Co., 1609. The Plymouth Co., 1620. The two companies in 1606.
5. New England Grants and the Development of the N. E. States.
6. Grants to the Middle Colonies and the Development of the Middle States.
7. Southern Grants and the Development of the Southern States.
8. Drainage Map.
9. North America from 1755-1753.
10. Result of the French and Indian War, 1763.
11. The 13 Colonies, Proclamation Line, 1763, and Quebec Act, 1774.
12. Northern Campaigns of the Revolutionary War. Early Campaigns of Revolutionary War.
13. Washington's Campaigns.
14. Southern Campaigns of the Revolutionary War.
15. Our Country at Close of the Revolutionary War, 1783.

16. Territorial Claims of the 13 Colonies. The Northwest Territory, and the Territory Settlement of the Ohio River.
17. Constitutional Convention.
18. Louisiana Purchase of France, 1803.
19. War of 1812.
20. The Missouri Compromise and Florida Treaty.
21. The U. S., 1837, and the Republic of Texas.
22. Oregon Country. The Maine Boundary and Webster-Ashburton Treaty.
23. Our Country, 1846.
24. War with Mexico.
25. Our Country at the close of the Mexican War, 1848.
26. Compromise of 1850.
27. The Kansas-Nebraska Act, 1854.
28. Our Country, 1861-5.
29. Grant's Campaign in the West.
30. Campaigns of Buell and Bragg.
31. Sherman's March to the Sea and Hood's Retreat.
32. Campaigns of the Army of the Potomac vs. the Campaigns of Robert E. Lee.
33. U. S. and Her Possessions, 1907.

MacCoun's Historical Charts of U. S. Silver, Burdett & Co. Boston, Mass. 1908. Price, with supporter, \$12.50, net.

1. Exploration Map.
2. Early English Grants.
3. Foreign Claims to the Atlantic Slope.
4. Origin of Colonies. Grants to Duke of York.
5. Land Claims of the States. Cessions to the Government.
6. English Colonies. Original States.
7. N. W. and S. W. Territories. Missouri Territories and First New States.
8. Republic of Texas.
9. Civil War.
10. United States.
11. Drainage Map.
12. First Division of North America.
13. Result of French and Indian Wars.
14. Result of Revolutionary War.
15. Spain Cedes Louisiana to France.
16. Louisiana Purchase.
17. Florida Purchase.
18. Annexation of Texas and Oregon.
19. Result of Mexican War.
20. Gadsden and Russian Purchases.

Atkinson, Mentzer Historical Maps. A series of 16 maps, to accompany United States History. 40x45 in., 7 colors, complete with iron standard, per set, \$16.00, net. Discount, 16%. Atkinson, Mentzer & Grover. New York and Chicago.

1. North America in 1600.
2. Early Claims and Grants.
3. The Atlantic Coast in 1650.
4. The Atlantic Coast in 1713.
5. North America in 1750.
6. Results of the French and Indian War.
7. The Scene of the Revolution.
8. Western Land Claims.
9. Beginning of the Public Domain.
10. The United States in 1800.
11. The Louisiana Purchase.
12. The United States after 1819.
13. Texas and the Mexican War.
14. The Mexican Cessions and Oregon.
15. Illustrating the Following Events in Connection with the Slavery Question:
 - The Missouri Compromise.
 - The Compromise of 1850.
 - The Kansas-Nebraska Bill.
 - Effect of Dred Scott Decision.
 - The Seceding States.
16. Territorial Development of the United States.
 - The United States in 1783.
 - Louisiana Added, 1803.
 - Florida Added, 1819.
 - Texas and the Mexican Cessions.

United States.

U. S. Wall Map, prepared by the Land Office. Department of the Interior, Washington. Along its lower border are small maps of Cuba, Canal Zone, Hawaiian group, Guam, Philippines, and Tutuila group of Samoan Islands. 5x7 ft. on muslin. \$1.00, net. Globe Series. Rand, McNally. 41x52 in. \$2.00, net. Physical Map of the U. S. Rand, McNally. 1910. 66x46 in. \$8.00, net. Universal Series. (United States, Canada, and Mexico.) Rand, McNally. 41x52 in. \$8.00.

Peerless Series. Bardeen. 1904. 54½x36 in. With names. \$4.00, list.

Columbia Series. Rand, McNally. 1895-1909. 66x46 in. \$3.50.

Peerless Outline Series. Bardeen. 54½x36 in. Without names. \$4.00, list.

Hammond's Commercial Map of the United States, with Portions of Canada and Mexico. 1910. 61x40 in. Hammond. \$3.75, net.

Blackboard Map of the United States. Kenney Bros. & Wolkins. 3 ft. 8¼ in. x 4 ft. 8½ in. \$3.50, list.

Columbia Series. Blackboard map. Rand, McNally. 1910. 6 ft. x 4 ft. 1 in. \$4.00, net.

Unrivalled Series. Blackboard map of the U. S. Babb. 4x5 ft. \$2.50, net.

Blackboard outline map of the U. S. with state boundaries. Hammett. 4x5 ft. \$4.00, list.

New England.

Massachusetts. Peerless Series. Scarborough. Hammett. 4 ft. 8 in. x 3 ft. \$3.00, list.

Blackboard outline map of New England States. Rand, McNally. 4 ft. 9 in. x 4 ft. \$5.00, list.

State Maps.

United States Government. Department of the Interior.

Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Florida, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

South America.

Stanford's Orographical Maps. Rand, McNally. 52x60 in. (Spring roller, steel case.) \$9.60, net.

South America, Columbia Series. Rand, McNally. 1895-1907. 3½x4½ ft. \$3.50, net.

Peerless Series. Scarborough. Bardeen. 1904. 3 ft. 2 in. x 3 ft. 4 in. \$4.00, list.

Peerless Outline Series. Scarborough. Bardeen. 1904. 37½x53½ in. \$4.00, list.

Philips' Model Test Outline Maps. Philips, Kenney Brothers & Wolkins. 30½x39 in. \$3.00, list.

Bird's-Eye View Map of South America. Rand, McNally. 43 in. x (Spring roller, steel case.) \$6.00, net.

Universal Series. Rand, McNally. 1889-1908. 37x45 in. (Common roller.) \$8.00, net.

Globe Series. Rand, McNally. 1898-1908. 37x45 in. \$2.00, net.

Charts.

Croscup's Synchronic Chart of United States History. Windsor, Pub. (Book Form.) \$1.50.

Croscup's Wall Chart of United States History. Windsor, Pub. (Cloth back on rollers.) \$5.00.

Ellsworth, Oliver, Editor. Historical Chart of the United States. 1861. Bazin & Ellsworth. 1861. 29 1-5 cm. Out of print.

Atlases.

Hart, Albert Bushnell. Epoch Maps, Illustrating American History. Longmans, Green. 1910. \$5.50, net.

Hammond, C. S. Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Atlas. Hammond. 1909. \$2.50.

MacCoun, Townsend. Historical Geography of the United States. Silver, Burdett. 1901. \$9.00, net.

Department of the Interior, United States Government. Statistical Atlas of the United States. (Based upon the Census of 1910.) In preparation.

Wall Pictures.

United States Historical Wall Pictures. (To accompany historical maps of the same publisher.) The University Company.

Declaration of Independence. Trumbull.

Battle of Bunker Hill. Trumbull.

Surrender of Cornwallis. Trumbull.

Others in preparation.

Lohmeyer. Wandbilder für den geschichtlichen Unterricht, nach Originalen hervorragender Künstler. 98: 72 cm. M3. (\$8.00) each. Koehler.

24. Columbus erste Landung in Amerika. Columbus First Landing in America. \$1.30.

Longmans' Historical Wall Pictures. Illustrating British History. Painted from authentic sources by Henry J. Ford. Longmans, Green & Company. 24x18 in. (On plate paper 30x25 in.)

10. Wolfe on the Plains of Abraham. \$8.00.

The "A. L." Historical Incidents. Arnold. 36x31 in. (On paper 40x36 in.)

71. Wolfe at Quebec—Climbing the Heights. (13th September, 1759.)

India-proof Photogravures. (On heavy paper 28x38 in.) Averaging 16½x20 in. Elson. \$5.00, each.

Signing the Declaration of Independence. John Trumbull.
George Washington (oval). Gilbert Stuart. Athenaeum portrait.

Small Pictures.

Masterpieces in Art. Elson Prints. Photogravures, averaging 5½x8 in. on paper 9x12 in. \$1.25 per portfolio of 10 prints, with descriptive text. Single prints, \$1.00.

American. Washington Crossing the Delaware; Concord Bridge; U. S. Frigate "Constitution"; Washington Resigning his Commission; Signing of the Compact in the Cabin of the Mayflower; Mount Vernon; Abraham Lincoln; General Washington; Alexander Hamilton; Samuel Adams; Benjamin Franklin; Patrick Henry; James Otis.

The Halliday Historic Photographs. Places and houses famous in the early history of New England. Sizes 5x7 and 6½x8½. \$5.00. Other sizes at proportionate prices. Collected by the late W. H. Halliday. The Halliday Photo Company.

Rebecca Nurse House, Danvers. This was the house where she lived when tried and condemned as a witch. \$5.00.

Birthplace of Gen. Hooker at Hadley. \$5.00.

Fort Halifax, Winslow, Maine. \$5.00.

Governor Bradford's House, Austerfield. \$5.00.

Boston Tea Party. \$7.50.

Silhouette of George Washington. \$2.00.

Cook House, Watertown. \$5.00.

Old Belfry, Lexington. \$5.00.

Photographs of the Paintings of Objects in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. (On sale at the Museum.) 8x10 in. Sepia. \$4.00.

J. Q. Adams; Samuel Adams; George Washington; Martha Washington; General Knox; Family of Charles II; Punch Bowl of Paul Revere.

Postcards.

Postcard Pictures of Indian Chiefs. (Tuck.) Set of six. \$1.50.

The Perry Pictures. Pictures of various sizes: 5½x8. \$0.01 each. 7x9. \$0.02 each. 10x12. \$0.05 each. These pictures have various subjects, including great men, historic places, sculpture, etc. The Perry Picture Company.

Indian Chiefs, Presidents, Statesmen, etc. Historic places and events.

Lantern Slides Illustrating American History from Sources Usually Inaccessible. The University Company. Boston.

Map of Apianus.

Cartoon. (Contemporary). Bunker's Hill or America's Head-dress.

Portrait of Lord North.

Cartoons (Contemporary) from Paris. Lord North Awaiting News from America.

Battle of Brandywine.

Washington Receiving Notification of Election to Presidency.

Casts.

Caproni.

No. 5446. Franklin. 2 ft high. \$7.50, net.

No. 5497. Paul Jones. 2 ft. 4 in. high. \$9.00, net.

No. 5395. Lincoln. 2 ft. 8 in. high. \$15.00, net.

Books.

U. S. Library of Congress. The Kohl collection of maps relating to America. By Justin Winsor, with index by P. L. Phillips. Washington Government Printing Office. 1904. 26 cm. Cloth, \$4.00.

U. S. Library of Congress. List of maps and views of Washington and District of Columbia in the Library of Congress. By Phillips. Washington Government Printing Office. 1900. 23 2-5 cm. Paper, \$0.05.

U. S. Library of Congress. List of maps of America, preceded by a list of works relating to cartography. By Phillips. Washington Government Printing Office. 1901. 26 cm. Cloth, \$1.00; paper, \$0.75.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

Maps.

Entwicklung des römischen reiches, entworfen von Guido Jondl Freytag und Berndt. Koehler; Rand, McNally. 71x68 in. \$6.00.

Insets:

Das persische reich und das reich Alexanders des Grossen.

Das alte Griechenland.

Attica und Boeotien.

Kampf bei Thermopylae.

Stellen der flotten bei Salamis.

Alexander's ubergang über den Hellespont.

Schlacht bei Issus.

Landschaften des alten Italien.

Latium und Campanien.

Besitzstand der Römer und der Karthager zu beginn des zweiten punischen krieges.

Wandkarte zur Geschichte des Römischen Reiches bearbeitet v.

Prof. Dr. E. Schwabe. Ed. 4. Lang. 7½x5½ft. Koehler; Rand, McNally. \$5.50.

Insets:

Die Diadochenreiche, bei ihrem zusammenstosse mit den Römern. Das karthagische reich in seiner grossten ausdehnung.

Klein-Asien vor ausbruch des I mithradatischen krieges.

Klein-Asien um das jahr 60. nach der organisierung der provinzen durch Pompejus.

Historiae antiquae carta, entworfen von H. Hemmleb. Koehler; Rand, McNally. 72 in.x50 in. \$5.75.

Inset:

India. 15 in.x18 in.

New Wall Maps of Ancient History. By Dr. Henry Kiepert. Rand, McNally.

Ancient World (for the periods preceding the Roman Empire).

74x40 in. (Common roller.) \$6.00, net.

Roman Empire. 75x57 in. \$7.20, net.

Ancient Greece. 79x60 in. \$7.20, net.

Ancient Asia Minor. 78x39 in. \$6.00, net.

Ancient Gaul and Germany. 69x55 in. \$7.20, net.

Ancient Italy. 53x62 in. \$6.00, net.

Ancient Latium, with the Environs of Rome. 57x42 in. \$4.80, net.

Empires of the Persians and of Alexander the Great. 79x39 in. \$6.00, net.

Kampen's Ancient History Maps. (With Latin text.) Hammett.

Ancient Italy. 65x60 in. \$7.60, list.

Roman Empire. 78x66 in. \$8.60, list.

Johnston Classical Series. Johnston, Babb, Nystrom. \$2.75, net, each.

Orbis Veteribus Notus. (The World as Known to the Ancients.) 50x42 in.

Orbis Romanus. (Roman World.) 50x42 in. Inset map of Asiae Interioris.

Asia Minor Antiqua. 50x42 in.

Caesar de Bello Gallico. 50x42 in.

Italia Antiqua. 50x42 in. Inset map of Roma Antiqua.

Graecia Antiqua. 50x42 in.

Countries Bordering on the Mediterranean. (Outline, without names.) 50x42 in. Inset map of Graecia and Italia.

MacCoun's Historical Geography Charts of Europe. Ancient and Classic Periods. Silver, Burdett & Company. Boston. Date, 1894. Size, 38½x29 in. Scale, 88 m. to 1 in. Price, with supporters, \$12.50, net.

1. Drainage Map.

2. Early Centers of Civilization.

3. 1250 B.C. Egypt Under Rameses II.

4. 1000 B.C. Homeric Greek. Israel.

5. 800 to 600 B.C. Greece and Phoenician Colonies. Assyria's Greatness.

6. Original Home and Dispersion of the Indo-European or Aryan Race.

7. 560 B.C. Primitive Races of Western Europe; Four Great Powers in the East.

8. 480 B.C. Persian Attempt to Conquer Greece.

9. Greece at the Beginning of the Peloponnesian War. 431 B.C.

10. 325 B.C. Greek Civilization Carried Into the East.

11. 290 B.C. Rome After the Samnite Wars, Division of Alexander's Empire.

12. 227 B.C. Mediterranean Lands Before the Second Punic and Klevmenic Wars.

13. About 100 B.C. Rome After the Macedonian, Punic and Achaean Wars.

14. 44 B.C. Rome at the Death of Caesar.

15. Rome at Its Greatest Extent. 1-117 A.D.

16. Division of Roman Empire by Diocletian. 192.

17. Division—Eastern and Western Nations. Teutonic Nation. 395.

18. Last Days of Rome. Wandering of Nations. 475.

Charts.

Graphic Companion of Greek and Roman Studies. (Portfolio of pictures and chronological charts illustrating Greek and Roman life history. Prepared by Miss Anna B. Thompson.) For sale by Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

Atlases.

Butler, Rev. George, Ed. Longmans' Atlas of Ancient Geography. Longmans, Green. 1902. \$2.00.

Grundy, G. B., Ed. Murray's Small Classical Atlas. Oxford Press. 1904.

Ginn & Company. Ginn Company's Classical Atlas. Ginn & Company, 1897. Loaned.

(To be continued in the May Magazine.)

Bibliography of History and Civics

Edited by a Committee of the North Central History Teachers' Association Composed of Wayland J. Chase, The University of Wisconsin, Chairman; Karl F. Geiser, Oberlin College; Laurence M. Larson, The University of Illinois; Clarence Perkins, Ohio State University. Assisted by Victoria A. Adams, Calumet High School, Chicago; Carl E. Pray, State Normal School, Milwaukee; William L. Westermann, The University of Wisconsin.

BARFIELD, T. C. Longman's Historical Illustrations. New York, Longmans, Green & Co. Six portfolios, at 90 cents each.

These "Illustrations" comprise a series of six cardboard portfolios, each of which contains twelve plates. Each plate measures 12 in. x 9½ in., and contains, on the average, ten separate illustrations; consequently, the series provides a large amount of pictorial material. The artist's purpose has been to collect, classify and reproduce the available materials of the sort that may be used to illustrate medieval civilization in the period of the Eleventh to the Fifteenth Century inclusive. He gives us pictures of street life, hall life and farm life; illustrations of architecture in its various forms—ecclesiastical, military and domestic; illustrations of costumes worn by the various orders of men and women; and pictures of a number of other subjects that belong to medieval life. So far as possible, the artist has reproduced material remains and the illustrations in illuminated manuscripts; but many of the "Illustrations" are composite pictures, the details for which have been found in contemporary drawings. Nearly all the materials have been taken from English sources; only in rare cases have continental remains or manuscripts been utilized. In reproducing medieval drawings it has been necessary to idealize somewhat at the time; but in this part of the work the artist has shown admirable self-restraint. Each plate is provided with brief descriptive notes, and each portfolio contains a separate sheet, giving a more detailed discussion of the subjects presented. While the "Illustrations" are primarily intended for use in the teaching of English history, they will also be found useful in the study of general medieval history. Laurence M. Larson.

MEDLEY, D. J. The Church and the Empire, an Outline of the History of the Church from A.D. 1003 to A.D. 1304. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. 300. \$1.40, net.

The briefer title of this book gives an incorrect impression that it is merely a detailed account of the papal-imperial conflicts of the Middle Ages. It does give a very good brief account of each of the successive quarrels between the Popes and the Emperors from the time of Gregory VII to that of Innocent IV and the Emperor Frederick II, with excellent discussions of the underlying and immediate causes and the results to empire and papacy, including the decline of papal power after the victory over the Hohenstaufen, culminating in the pontificate of Boniface VIII. Interspersed in the narrative at appropriate points are brief but illuminating chapters on the secular clergy and their activities, the character and history of various monastic orders, Saint Bernard, Abelard, and scholasticism. Later come chapters on the growth of the papal power in the church and the machinery by which it was exerted, the doctrines and discipline of the medieval church, the causes and character of the great heretical movements of the period and how they were suppressed, the mendicant orders, and the missionary activity of the church among the heathen. Some of these chapters are rather brief, but they supply a need for usable collateral reading references of moderate length, and high school teachers will find this book a useful manual for reference work in the field of medieval history. Clarence Perkins.

GARDINER, E. NORMAN. Greek Athletic Sports and Festivals. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. xxvii, 533. \$2.50.

This is the series of Handbooks of Archaeology and Antiquities, and bears every evidence of careful and unbiased research, as well as of intimate knowledge of the sources. It is undoubtedly the best authority in the English language on its subject.

The first half of the book contains the history of Greek athletics from the Homeric Age to 393 A.D., when the whole Roman world was Hellenized. The author traces the rise of athletic festivals with the history of Olympia and its excavations as a basis, describes the period after the Persian wars as "the Age of the Athletic Ideal," when the longing for Panhellenic unity was at its height, and shows how their decline was due to the evils of professionalism, specialization, and corruption. The chapter, "Athletics under the Romans," is devoted especially to the empire. The continuity of Greek life is traced very clearly in the history of the

games. Besides the historical account of the four great Greek festivals there is a very full and valuable description of the athletic festivals of Athens. The second half treats in detail the different contests. The best chapters are those on the Pentathlon and Pankration. There are also chapters on the Stadium, the Gymnasium, the Palaestra, and the Hippodrome.

The illustrations of statues, places, coins and especially scenes from vases are of the highest order and serve as evidence to confirm the theories advanced. A very complete bibliography is placed at the end and foot-notes are abundant.

Such a book has a place in a high school library. In this day when interest in athletics is so keen many pupils will read parts of the book with avidity and will gain not only knowledge of the Greek games but will also acquire, what seems to the teacher of more value, an added interest in Greek history and the habit of supplementary reading. The teacher will find the chapters describing the festivals useful and more than useful the introductory chapters which shows the intimate connection of athletics with Greek education, art, religion and politics. While a history of Greek athletics, it is more than that,—it is a treatise on Greek life and Greek character. Victoria A. Adams.

EVERY, E. M. History of the United States and Its People. Vol. VII. Cleveland, Burrows Bros. Pp. xxvii, 452. \$6.25.

The value for the high school library of this set, to be completed in sixteen volumes, has not yet received due recognition. There is no field of service where its abundant, unusually excellent and generally instructive illustrations, maps and fac-similes of manuscripts would be of greater advantage. Much of this illustration is source material in the form most attractive to young students, so that the volumes have on their pictorial side, in large degree, the value of a well-stocked historical museum. Of most importance, their text matter is well adapted to use with senior classes. It is comprehensive in the scope of its topics, and these are tersely and clearly treated. Thus the essence of the fact is obtainable without undue labor on the part of the pupil. The conclusions of the author are in the main those that the best scholarship supports. The place of this group of volumes in the literature of American history promises to be very much that of Duray's Greek and Roman Histories, and the illustrated edition of Green's History of the English People in their respective fields. Volume VII covers the period from 1788 to 1806 and contains as appendices the Constitution, Washington's Farewell Address in fac-simile of the original manuscript, and a bibliography whose prime purpose is suggestion of supplementary reading matter for the student of the volume. Wayland J. Chase.

ALLEN, J. W. The Place of History in Education. New York, D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 258. \$1.25.

Beginning with enquiries as to what history is, how far there is a science of history and whether history as a science or history as a pageant shall predominate in the teaching of the subject in the schools, the author reaches the conclusion that since education "is clearly a question of training, first of all, rather than of knowledge, it is with history as a science that our schooling must be primarily concerned." Thenceforth basing his discussion on this premise, he proceeds to consideration of the values of history "for thought, intellectual training and morals." In this connection he devotes a chapter to the enquiry whether difference of sex demands difference in the history taught, and decides that "the education that is good enough for women will be just good enough for men." The succeeding chapters enquire what sort of preliminary teaching there should be for children as introduction to historical study and how, when history is taught, the intrusion of personal bias may be avoided.

The treatise is a more than usually minute and thorough-going examination of the topics considered, and it is altogether with theory, not with method, that the book deals. Though new material is not presented, it is of value for history teachers and students of education because of its suggestiveness and stimulating quality. Wayland J. Chase.

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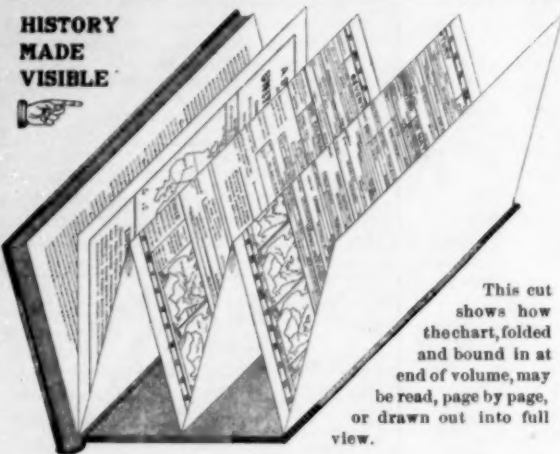
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